

DETECTING COMPROMISED BALLOTS

RELATED APPLICATIONS

- [0001] This application claims the benefit of U.S. Provisional Application No. 60/270,182 filed February 20, 2001, and is a continuation-in-part of each of U.S. Patent Application No. 09/534,836, filed March 24, 2000; U.S. Patent Application No. 09/535,927, filed March 24, 2000; and U.S. Patent Application No. 09/816,869 filed March 24, 2001. Each of these four applications is incorporated by reference in its entirety.

TECHNICAL FIELD

- [0002] The present invention is directed to the fields of election automation and cryptographic techniques therefor.

BACKGROUND

- [0003] The problems of inaccuracy and inefficiency have long attended conventional, manually-conducted elections. While it has been widely suggested that computers could be used to make elections more accurate and efficient, computers bring with them their own pitfalls. Since electronic data is so easily altered, many electronic voting systems are prone to several types of failures that are far less likely to occur with conventional voting systems.
- [0004] One class of such failures relates to the uncertain integrity of the voter's computer, or other computing device. In today's networked computing environment, it is extremely difficult to keep any machine safe from malicious software. Such software is often able to remain hidden on a computer for long periods of time before actually performing a malicious action. In the meantime, it may replicate itself to other computers on the network, or computers that have

some minimal interaction with the network. It may even be transferred to computers that are not networked by way of permanent media carried by users.

[0005] In the context of electronic secret ballot elections, this kind of malicious software is especially dangerous, since even when its malicious action is triggered, it may go undetected, and hence left to disrupt more elections in the future. Controlled logic and accuracy tests ("L&A tests") monitor the processing of test ballots to determine whether a voting system is operating properly, and may be used in an attempt to detect malicious software present in a voter's computer. L&A tests are extremely difficult to conduct effectively, however, since it is possible that the malicious software may be able to differentiate between "real" and "test" ballots, and leave all "test" ballots unaffected. Since the requirement for ballot secrecy makes it impossible to inspect "real" ballots for compromise, even exhaustive L&A testing may prove futile. The problem of combating this threat is known as the "Client Trust Problem."

[0006] Most existing methods for solving the Client Trust Problem have focused on methods to secure the voting platform, and thus provide certainty that the voter's computer is "clean," or "uninfected." Unfortunately, the expertise and ongoing diligent labor that is required to achieve an acceptable level of such certainty typically forces electronic voting systems into the controlled environment of the poll site, where the client computer systems can be maintained and monitored by computer and network experts. These poll site systems can still offer some advantages by way of ease of configuration, ease of use, efficiency of tabulation, and cost. However, this approach fails to deliver on the great potential for distributed communication that has been exploited in the world of e-commerce.

[0007] Accordingly, a solution to the Client Trust Problem that does not require the voting platform to be secured against malicious software, which enables practically any computer system anywhere to be used as the voting platform, would have significant utility.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF DRAWINGS

[0008] Figure 1 is a high-level block diagram showing a typical environment in which the facility operates.

[0009] Figure 2 is a block diagram showing some of the components typically incorporated in at least some of the computer systems and other devices on which the facility executes.

[0010] Figure 3 is a flow diagram showing steps typically performed by the facility in order to detect a compromised ballot.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

[0011] A software facility for detecting ballots compromised by malicious programs ("the facility") is provided. The approach employed by the facility is unique in that it does not make any attempt to eliminate, or prevent the existence of malicious software on the voting computer. Instead, it offers a cryptographically secure method for the voter to verify the contents of the voter's ballot *as it is received at the vote collection center*, without revealing information about the contents (ballot choices) to the collection center itself. That is, the vote collection center can confirm to the voter exactly what choices were received, without knowing what those choices are. Thus, the voter can detect any differences between the voter's *intended* choices, and the *actual* choices received at the vote collection center (as represented in the transmitted voted ballot digital data). Further, each election can choose from a flexible set of policy decisions allowing a voter to *re-cast* the voter's ballot in the case that the received choices differ from the intended choices.

A. The Simplest Secret Value Confirmation Setting

[0012] In order to understand the key cryptographic protocol that makes secret value confirmation possible, we first describe a simplified embodiment of the facility. In accordance with this embodiment, the ballot consists of a single yes or

wishes to choose “no”. Any other message (i.e., $m \in S_i$) is considered invalid. This encrypted value is what is digitally signed by the voter, and then transmitted to the vote collection center. For now, we will consider a simple decision encoding scheme in which $S_y = \{G_y\}$, $S_n = \{G_n\}$, and $S_i = \langle g \rangle - \{G_y, G_n\}$. However, with obvious small modifications, the discussion that follows applies equally well to more general settings.

[0017] If the voter was computing these values himself – say with pencil and paper – this protocol would essentially suffice to implement a secret-ballot, universally verifiable election system. (Depending on the tabulation method to be used, some additional information, such as a voter proof of validity may be necessary.) However, since the voter only makes choices through a user interface, it is in many cases unrealistic to expect him/her to check the actual value of the bits sent and compare them to the voter's intent. In short, malicious software can ignore voter intent and submit a “no” vote when the voter specified “yes”, or submit a “yes” vote when the voter specified “no”.

B. Creating a Secret Value Confirmation

[0018] We differentiate two types of vote corruption, *directed* and *undirected*. Directed vote corruption is the act of changing a “yes” vote to a “no” vote, or a “no” vote to a “yes” vote. Undirected vote corruption is the act of changing from a “valid” vote (“yes” or “no”) to an “invalid” vote. The following steps will detect *directed* vote corruption in the simple ballot setting of the previous section. They rely on the intractability of the *Diffie-Hellman Problem* described in A. M. Odlyzko, *Discrete logarithms in finite fields and their cryptographic significance*, Advances in Cryptology – EURO-CRYPT '84, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag, 1984.

[0019] 1. The computer operated by voter V_i submits the encrypted decision as before, optionally signing the encrypted decision using a private key of this voter.

[0020] 2. The vote collection center generates two values $K_i \in Z_p$ and $\beta_i \in Z_q$ randomly and independently. These values are generated on a per voter basis, and kept secret from all but the collection center. They may be generated in advance of the election.

[0021] 3. The vote collection center computes the values

$$W_i = K_i Y_i^{\beta_i} = K_i h^{\alpha_i \beta_i} m^{\beta_i} \quad (1)$$

$$U_i = h^{\beta_i} \quad (2)$$

and returns them to the voter's computer. W_i and U_i are together known as the "encrypted vote confirmation."

[0022] 4. The voter's computer, knowing the secret α_i , can compute $W_i / U_i^{\alpha_i} = K_i m^{\beta_i}$. It then displays this value to the voter. In some embodiments, the facility displays a hash of this value to the voter, rather than the value itself. When displaying the hash, the length of the data is generally shorter, thus enabling the voter to read and compare fewer characters.

[0023] The vote collection center does not know what value is, or should be, displayed, since the vote data it received was strongly encrypted. However, it does know:

- (a) If the voter voted "yes", the value $K_i m_y^{\beta_i}$ should be displayed,
- (b) If the voter voted "no", the value $K_i m_n^{\beta_i}$ should be displayed,
- (c) If the voter voted any invalid value, a value other than these two should be displayed.

[0024] 5. The voter can now check the validity of the vote received by contacting the vote collection center through some secure communication channel, such as telephone, fax, or surface mail. By sending a request containing

- (a) The voter's voter id.
- (b) Optionally, a short PIN (4-5 digits typically suffice) to prevent the malicious software from masquerading remotely as the voter.

the voter can obtain from the vote collection center a "confirmation dictionary" indicating the two possible values the voter should have seen displayed depending on how the voter voted, such as "If you voted 'yes', your confirmation string should be 'xyz...' and if you voted 'no', your confirmation string should be 'abc....'" In some embodiments, the confirmation dictionary is supplied to the voter in advance of the election. For example, the unique confirmation dictionary for each voter could be sent through the postal mail as part of a "voter information packet." (Note that absentee ballots are delivered to voters through the postal mail.)

[0025] 6. The voter verifies that the confirmation string the voter saw displayed by the voter's computer is consistent with both the voter's *intended choice* and this confirmation dictionary.

[0026] 7. Any inconsistency indicates that some sort of unexpected behavior has occurred on the voter's computer, or in transmission, and corrective action should be taken. In many electronic voting schemes, an individual voter's ballot can be removed from the ballot box and resubmitted. The exact procedure for voter corrective action is a matter of policy, and may involve some form of voter protest, followed by a resubmission of the ballot in a controlled, secure environment. Alternatively, the voter may be allowed a few attempts from a remote computer before being forced to go to a controlled environment to resubmit.

[0027] The essential cryptographic foundation of this protocol is that the voter's computer, or malicious software running on it, cannot (for well chosen – i.e., randomly chosen – m_y and m_n) compute the complementary confirmation string, i.e., compute $K_i m_n^{\beta_i}$ from $K_i m_y^{\beta_i}$ (or visa versa). This is because doing so requires computing $(m_n/m_y)^{\beta_i}$ (or visa versa), and the only information available to aid in this task is h^{β_i} . In short, the malicious software would have to solve an instance of the Diffie-Hellman Problem.

C. An Attack on the Previous Protocol

[0028] As noted, malicious software cannot conduct *directed* vote corruption without the corruption being detected and later corrected. However, the basic version of the protocol outlined above in some cases may allow *undirected* vote corruption to go undetected as in the following scenario.

[0029] 1. Instead of submitting (X_i, Y_i) as the voter intends, the voter's computer can submit $(X_i, Y_i h^\gamma)$ for any chosen $\gamma \in Z_q$. This will have the effect of transforming a valid vote into an invalid one. When the computer receives the encrypted vote confirmation, it can follow the protocol to compute $K_i h^{\gamma \beta_i} m^{\beta_i}$.

[0030] 2. Were it to display this value, the voter would notice a problem, since it would not match the confirmation dictionary. However, since the malicious software generated, and knows γ , and also knows h^{β_i} from the encrypted confirmation it received, it can compute $(h^{\beta_i})^\gamma = h^{\gamma \beta_i}$. By division, it can then compute right value $K_i m^{\beta_i}$ – i.e., the one to match the voter's confirmation dictionary – and display it, thereby fooling the voter. Of course, invalid votes will be detected at tabulation time, but this will usually be too late for corrective action to be taken. Embodiments of the facility guard against such an undirected attack by employing a *voter validity proof* as discussed in the next section.

D. Counter Attack – Voter Validity Proof

[0031] The validity proof constructed by the voter proves to the vote collection center that, (X_i, Y_i) , the encrypted decision (ballot) received from voter V_i , is either an encryption of m_y or an encryption of m_n , without revealing any information about which of these values it is. Methods for constructing validity proofs of this type can be found in U.S. Patent Application No. 09/535,927, as well as R. Cramer, I. Damgard, B. Schoenmakers, *Proofs of partial knowledge and simplified design of witness hiding protocols*, Advances in Cryptology, CRYPTO '94, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pp. 174-187, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1994, which is hereby incorporated by reference in its entirety. Thus, the validity

proof proves that the received encrypted ballot *is valid*, which is exactly what is needed to prevent the undetected, undirected vote corruption of the previous section. The malicious software may try an undirected vote corruption as before, but it will not be able to supply the required validity proof, and thus will be detected even before the encrypted vote confirmation is returned to the voter. As already noted, the secret value confirmation protocol itself detects directed vote corruption.

[0032] The validity proofs can be extended to more general sets of response options than simple "yes/no". As a result, the facility is able to prevent the attack of section C in the more general case as well. The resulting protocol for the general case is as follows.

[0033] 1. *Ballot Construction:* The encryption group, generator, and ElGamal public key are all created as usual. However, the decision encoding scheme needs to be chosen carefully. For simplicity, let us assume that there is only one question on the ballot. (If there are multiple questions, the facility performs the steps that follow independently for each of the individual questions.) Let a_1, \dots, a_n be the set of allowable answers. For example, these could be $a_1 = \text{'George Bush'}$, $a_2 = \text{'Al Gore'}$, $a_3 = \text{'Ralph Nader'}$, and $a_4 = \text{'I abstain'}$. Note that in this example, $n = 4$.

[0034] The jurisdiction, or other entity responsible for creating the ballot, must select n elements from Z_q, μ_1, \dots, μ_n , *independently and at random*. These are assigned, in sequence, as the corresponding response values to each allowable answer, resulting the specific decision encoding scheme. In the example, this means that the digital blank ballot publicly specifies that

- a vote for 'George Bush' should be submitted as $(g^\alpha, h^\alpha \mu_1)$, i.e., an encryption of μ_1 ,
- a vote for 'Al Gore' should be submitted as $(g^\alpha, h^\alpha \mu_2)$, i.e., an encryption of μ_2 ,

- a vote for 'Ralph Nader' should be submitted as $(g^\alpha, h^\alpha \mu_3)$, i.e., an encryption of μ_3 ,
- an abstention should be submitted as $(g^\alpha, h^\alpha \mu_4)$, i.e., an encryption of μ_4 .

[0035]

2. *Vote Submission:*

- (a) The computer operated by voter V_i submits an encrypted ballot on behalf of voter V_i as before, denoted as $(X_i, Y_i) = (g^{\alpha_i}, h^{\alpha_i} \mu)$ for some value $\mu \in \langle g \rangle$ and $\alpha_i \in Z_q$.
- (b) The computer operated by voter V_i also constructs a validity proof, P_i , as indicated above, in order to prove that $\mu \in \{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n\}$, without revealing any more information about its specific value.
- (c) The computer operated by voter V_i then submits both P_i and the encrypted vote, (X_i, Y_i) to the vote collection center.
- (d) Before accepting the encrypted ballot, the vote collection center first checks the proof, P_i . If verification of P_i fails, corruption has already been detected, and the vote collection center can either issue no confirmation string, or issue a random one.
- (e) Assuming then that verification of P_i succeeds, the vote collection center computes the values, W_i and U_i as in section B, steps 2 and 3, and returns these to the computer operated by voter V_i .
- (f) As in section B, the computer operated by voter V_i can compute $C = W_i / U_i^{\alpha_i}$, and display this string (or a hash of it) to the voter.
- (g) As in section B, step 5, the voter can now compare the displayed string against the voter's confirmation dictionary (obtained by one of the various modes described there). In general, the confirmation dictionary for voter V_i would consist of the following table laid out in any reasonable format:

a_1	$h(C_{i1})$
a_2	$h(C_{i2})$
\vdots	\vdots
a_n	$h(C_{in})$

where h is the election's public (i.e., published) hash function, and $C_{ij} = K_i \mu_j^{\beta_i}$.

- (h) Since the μ_i were chosen randomly and independently, *any* software (in particular, malicious software) can *only* display the confirmation string corresponding to the μ that was submitted or, obviously, an invalid confirmation string – it can not compute any other valid confirmation string without solving the Diffie-Hellman problem. Thus, if a μ different from the one intended by the voter is submitted, the confirmation string displayed will not match the correct confirmation string in the dictionary, and the voter will be able to detect corruption. In the case of detected corruption, corrective action can be taken as described above.

[0036] In order to more completely describe the facility, an example illustrating the operation of some of its embodiments is described hereafter.

The following is a detailed example of a Secret Value Confirmation exchange. In order to maximize the clarity of the example, several of the basic parameters used – for example, the number of questions on the ballot, and the size of the cryptographic parameters – are much smaller than those that would be typically used in practice. Also, while aspects of the example exchange are discussed below in a particular order, those skilled in the art will recognize that they may be performed in a variety of other orders.

Some electronic election protocols include additional features, such as:

- voter and authority certificate (public key) information for authentication and audit
- ballot page style parameters
- data encoding standards
- tabulation protocol and parameters

As these features are independent of the Secret Value Confirmation implementation, a detailed description of them is not included in this example.

This example assumes an election protocol that encodes voter responses (answers) as a single ElGamal pair. However, from the description found here, it is a trivial matter to also construct a Secret Value Confirmation exchange for other election protocols using ElGamal encryption for the voted ballot. For example, some embodiments of the facility incorporate the homomorphic election protocol described in U.S. Patent Application No. 09/535,927. In that protocol, a voter response is represented by multiple ElGamal pairs. The confirmation dictionary used in this example is easily modified to either display a concatenation of the respective confirmation strings, or to display a hash of the sequence of them.

The jurisdiction must first agree on the election initialization data. This at least includes: the basic cryptographic numerical parameters, a ballot (i.e. a set of questions and allowable answers, etc.), and a decision encoding scheme. (It may also include additional data relevant to the particular election protocol being used.)

Cryptographic Parameters

- **Group Arithmetic:** Integer multiplicative modular arithmetic
- **Prime Modulus:** $p = 47$
- **Subgroup Modulus:** $q = 23$
- **Generator:** $g = 2$.
- **Public Key:** $h = g^s$ where s is secret. For sake of this example, let us say that $h = g^{12} = 7$.

Ballot

- One Question
 - **Question 1 Text:** *Which colors should we make our flag? (Select at most 1.)*
 - **Number of answers/choices:** 4
 - * **Answer 1 Text:** *Blue*
 - * **Answer 2 Text:** *Green*
 - * **Answer 3 Text:** *Red*
 - * **Answer 4 Text:** *I abstain*

Decision Encoding Scheme

Choice	Response Value
<i>Blue</i>	9 (μ_1)
<i>Green</i>	21 (μ_2)
<i>Red</i>	36 (μ_3)
<i>I abstain</i>	17 (μ_4)

At some point, before issuing a confirmation *and* before distributing the voter confirmation dictionaries, the ballot collection center (or agency) generates random, independent β_i and K_i for each voter, V_i . If the confirmation dictionary is to be sent after vote reception, these parameters can be generated, on a voter by voter basis, immediately after each voted ballot is accepted. Alternatively, they can be generated in advance of the election. In this example, the ballot collection agency has access to these parameters both immediately after accepting the voted ballot, and immediately before sending the respective voter's confirmation dictionary.

Sometime during the official polling time, each voter, V , obtains, and authenticates, the election initialization data, described above. It can be obtained by submitting a "ballot request" to some ballot server. Alternatively, the jurisdiction may have some convenient means to "publish" the election initialization data – that is, make it conveniently available to all voters.

From the election initialization data, V is able to determine that the expected response is the standard encoding of a particular sequence of *two* distinct data elements. These are (in their precise order):

Choice Encryption A pair of integers (X, Y) with $0 \leq X, Y < 47$ indicating (in encrypted form) the voter's choice, or answer. For the answer to be valid, it must be of the form, $(X, Y) = (2^\alpha, 7^\alpha \mu)$, where $0 \leq \alpha < 23$ and $\mu \in \{9, 21, 36, 17\}$.

Proof of Validity A *proof of validity* showing that (X, Y) is of the form described in the choice encryption step above. (In this example, we shall see that this proof consists of 15 modular integers arranged in specific sequence.)

For the sake of this example, let us assume that V wishes to cast a vote for “Green”.

1. V generates $\alpha \in Z_{23}$ randomly. In this example, $\alpha = 5$. Since the encoding of “Green” is 21, V ’s choice encryption is computed as

$$(X, Y) = (2^5, 7^5 \times 21) = (32, 24) \quad (3)$$

This pair is what *should* be sent to the vote collection center. The potential threat is that V ’s computer may try to alter these values.

Voter V (or more precisely, V ’s computer) must prove that *one* of the following conditions hold

1. $(X, Y) = (2^\alpha, 7^\alpha \times 9)$ i.e. choice (vote cast) is “Blue”
2. $(X, Y) = (2^\alpha, 7^\alpha \times 21)$ i.e. choice (vote cast) is “Green”
3. $(X, Y) = (2^\alpha, 7^\alpha \times 36)$ i.e. choice (vote cast) is “Red”
4. $(X, Y) = (2^\alpha, 7^\alpha \times 17)$ i.e. choice (vote cast) is “I abstain”

for some unspecified value of α without revealing *which* of them actually does hold.

There are a variety of standard methods that can be used to accomplish this. See, for example, R. Cramer, I. Damgård, B. Schoenmakers, *Proofs of partial knowledge and simplified design of witness hiding protocols*, Advances in Cryptology - CRYPTO '94, Lecture Notes in Computer Science,

pp. 174-187, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1994. The Secret Value Confirmation technique used by the facility works equally well with any method that satisfies the abstract criteria of the previous paragraph. While details of one such validity proof method are provided below, embodiments of the facility may use validity proofs of types other than this one.

Validity Proof Construction:

(In what follows, each action or computation which V is required to perform is actually carried out by V 's computer.)

1. V sets $\alpha_2 = \alpha = 5$.
2. V generates $\omega_2 \in_R Z_{23}$, $r_1, r_3, r_4 \in_R Z_{23}$, $s_1, s_3, s_4 \in_R Z_{23}$ all randomly and independently. For this example we take

$$\omega_2 = 4 \tag{4}$$

$$r_1 = 16, r_3 = 17, r_4 = 21$$

$$s_1 = 12, s_3 = 4, s_4 = 15$$

3. V computes corresponding values

$$a_1 = g^{r_1} X^{-s_1} = 2^{16} \times 32^{11} = 4 \tag{5}$$

$$a_2 = g^{\omega_2} = 2^4 = 16$$

$$a_3 = g^{r_3} X^{-s_3} = 2^{17} \times 32^{19} = 6$$

$$a_4 = g^{r_4} X^{-s_4} = 2^{21} \times 32^8 = 9$$

$$b_1 = h^{r_1} (Y/9)^{-s_1} = 7^{16} \times (24/9)^{11} = 18$$

$$b_2 = h^{\omega_2} = 7^4 = 4$$

$$b_3 = h^{r_3} (Y/36)^{-s_3} = 7^{17} \times (24/36)^{19} = 1$$

$$b_4 = h^{r_4} (Y/17)^{-s_5} = 7^{21} \times (24/17)^8 = 7$$

(6)

4. V uses a publicly specified hash function H to compute $c \in Z_{23}$ as

$$c = H(\{X, Y, a_i, b_i\}) \quad 1 \leq i \leq 4 \quad (7)$$

Since many choices of the hash function are possible, for this example we can just pick a random value, say

$$c = 19. \quad (8)$$

(In practice, SHA1, or MD5, or other such standard secure hash function may be used to compute H .)

5. V computes the interpolating polynomial $P(x)$ of degree $4 - 1 = 3$. The defining properties of P are

$$P(0) = c = 19 \quad (9)$$

$$P(1) = s_1 = 12$$

$$P(3) = s_3 = 4$$

$$P(4) = s_4 = 15$$

$P(x) = \sum_{j=0}^3 z_j x^j$ is computed using standard polynomial interpolation theory, to yeild:

$$P(x) = x^3 + 20x^2 + 18x + 19 \quad (10)$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} z_0 &= 19 & z_1 &= 18 \\ z_2 &= 20 & z_3 &= 1 \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

6. V computes the values

$$s_2 = P(2) = 5 \quad (12)$$

$$r_2 = \omega_2 + \alpha_2 s_2 = 4 + 5 \times 5 = 6$$

7. V 's validity proof consists of the 12 numbers

$$\{a_k, b_k, r_k\}_{k=1}^6 \quad (13)$$

and the three numbers

$$\{z_k\}_{k=1}^3 \quad (14)$$

in precise sequence. (z_0 need not be submitted since it is computable from the other data elements submitted using the public hash function H .)

Having computed the required choice encryption, (X, Y) , and the corresponding proof of validity, V encodes these elements, in sequence, as defined by the standard encoding format. The resulting sequences form V 's voted ballot. (In order to make the ballot unalterable, and indisputable, V may also digitally sign this voted ballot with his private signing key. The resulting combination of V 's voted ballot, and his digital signature (more precisely, the standard encoding of these two elements) forms his signed voted ballot.) Finally, each voter transmits his (optionally signed) voted ballot back to the data center collecting the votes.

As described above, the voter specific random parameters for V (β and K) are available at the vote collection center. In this example, these are

$$\beta = 18 \quad K = 37 \quad (15)$$

When the voter's (optionally signed) voted ballot is received at the vote collection center, the following steps are executed

1. The digital signature is checked to determine the authenticity of the ballot, as well as the eligibility of the voter.
2. If the signature in step 1 verifies correctly, the vote collection center

then verifies the proof of validity. For the particular type of validity proof we have chosen to use in this example, this consists of

- (a) The public hash function H is used to compute the value of $P(0) = z_0$

$$z_0 = P(0) = H(\{X, Y, a_i, b_i\}_{i=1}^4) = 19 \quad (16)$$

(Recall that the remaining coefficients of P , z_1, z_2, z_3 , are part of V 's (optionally signed) voted ballot submission.)

- (b) For each $1 \leq j \leq 4$ both sides of the equations

$$\begin{aligned} a_j &= g^{r_j} x_j^{-P(j)} \\ b_j &= h^{r_j} (y_j / \mu_j)^{-P(j)} \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

are evaluated. (Here, as described above, the μ_j are taken from the Decision Encoding Scheme.) If equality fails in *any* of these, verification fails. This ballot is not accepted, and some arbitrary rejection

string (indication) is sent back to V .

3. Assuming that the previous steps have passed successfully, the reply string (W, U) is computed as

$$\begin{aligned} W &= KY^\beta = 37 \times 24^{18} = 9 \\ U &= h^\beta = 7^{18} = 42 \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

This sequenced pair is encoded as specified by the public encoding format, and returned to V .

4. V 's computer calculates

$$C = W/U^\alpha = 9/(42)^5 = 18 \quad (19)$$

and displays this string to V . (Alternatively, the protocol may specify that a public hash function is computed on C and the resulting hash value displayed. In this example, C , itself is displayed.) If V 's computer attempted to submit a choice other than "Green", the value of C computed above would be different. Moreover, the correct value of C can not be computed from an incorrect one without solving the Diffie-Hellman problem. (For the small values of p and q we have used here, this is possible, however, for "real" cryptographic parameters, V 's computer would be unable to do this.) Thus, if V 's computer has submitted an encrypted ballot which does not correspond to V 's choice, there are only two things it can do at the point it is expected to display a confirmation. It can display something, or it can display nothing. In the case that nothing is displayed, V may take this as indication that the ballot was corrupted. In the case that something is displayed, what is displayed will almost certainly be wrong, and again, V may take this as indication that the ballot was corrupted.

5. V now compares the value of C displayed to the value found in V 's confirmation dictionary corresponding to the choice, "Green" (V 's *intended* choice). At this point, V may have already received his confirmation dictionary in advance, or may obtain a copy through any independent channel. An example of such a channel would be to use a fax machine. If the displayed value does not match the corresponding confirmation string in the confirmation dictionary, corruption is detected, and the ballot can be "recast" in accordance with election specific policy.

Each voter confirmation dictionary is computed by the vote collection center, since, as described above, it is the entity which has knowledge of the

voter specific values of α and K . For the case of the voter, V , we have been considering, the dictionary is computed as

Choice	Confirmation String
"Blue"	$C_1 = K\mu_1^\beta = 37 \times 9^{18} = 16$
"Green"	$C_2 = K\mu_2^\beta = 37 \times 21^{18} = 18$
"Red"	$C_3 = K\mu_3^\beta = 37 \times 36^{18} = 36$
"I abstain"	$C_4 = K\mu_4^\beta = 37 \times 17^{18} = 8$

[0038]

[32462-8006US01/SL013620.161]

[0039] Figure 3 is a flow diagram showing steps typically performed by the facility in order to detect a compromised ballot. Those skilled in the art will appreciate that the facility may perform a set of steps that diverges from those shown, including proper supersets and subsets of these steps, reorderings of these steps, and steps of sets in which performance of certain steps by other computing devices.

[0040] In step 301, on the voter computer system, the facility encodes a ballot choice selected by the voter in order to form a ballot. In step 302, the facility encrypts this ballot. In some embodiments, the encrypted ballot is an ElGamal pair, generated using an election public key and a secret maintained on the voter computer system. In step 303, the facility optionally signs the ballot with a private key belonging to the voter. In step 304, the facility constructs a validity proof that demonstrates that the encrypted ballot is the encryption of a ballot in which a valid ballot choice is selected. In step 305, the facility transmits the encrypted, signed ballot and the validity proof to a vote collection center computer system.

[0041] In step 321, the facility receives this transmission in the vote collection center computer system. In step 322, the facility verifies the received validity proof. In step 323, if the validity proof is successfully verified, then the facility continues with 324, else the facility does not continue in step 324. In step 324, the facility generates an encrypted confirmation of the encrypted ballot. The facility does so without decrypting the ballot, which is typically not possible in the vote collection center computer system, where the secret used to encrypt the ballot is not available. In step 325, the facility transmits the encrypted confirmation 331 to the voter computer system.

[0042] In step 341, the facility receives the encrypted vote confirmation in the voter computer system. In step 342, the facility uses the secret maintained on the voter computer system to decrypt the encrypted vote confirmation. In step 343, the facility displays the decrypted vote confirmation for viewing by the user. In step 344, if the displayed vote confirmation is translated to the ballot choice selected by the voter by a confirmation dictionary in the voter's possession, then

the facility continues in step 345, else the facility continues in step 346. In step 345, the facility determines that the voter's ballot is not corrupted, whereas, in step 346, the facility determines that the voter's ballot is corrupted. In this event, embodiments of the facility assist the user in revoking and resubmitting the voter's ballot.

[0043] It will be appreciated by those skilled in the art that the above-described facility may be straightforwardly adapted or extended in various ways. While the foregoing description makes reference to preferred embodiments, the scope of the invention is defined solely by the claims that follow and the elements recited therein.